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ABSTRACT

This issue contains five articles on teaching English as a second language. "Predictive Validity of the CELT" by R. T. Moran and J. G. Erion discusses use of the Comprehensive English Language Test for Speakers of English as a Second Language to predict later success in a setting where nearly all students speak English as their second language. "Sentence Combining: A Theory and Two Reviews" by R. Shook acquaints the reader with the theory of sentence combining and reviews two books that apply to ESL instruction. "How to Construct a Crossword Puzzle" by A. C. Pack gives detailed instructions on the materials needed and procedure to be followed in constructing vocabulary building puzzles. "Report on 2nd Annual Year of Composition Workshop" by G. Larkin describes the presentations and workshops based on the theme of composition instruction within the framework of English as an international auxiliary language. The final article consists of a listing of employment opportunities for teachers of English as a second language in Kobe, Japan and Saudi Arabia. (AMH)

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Teaching English as a Second Language

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PREDICTIVE VALIDITY OF THE CELT

by Ross T. Moran and Jonathan G. Erion

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Editor's Note: *The following report on a study of the predictive validity of the CELT (A Comprehensive English Language Test for Speakers of English as a Second Language–McGraw-Hill Book Company) is particularly interesting because of the setting in which the study was made. While most previous studies of the ability of English language tests to predict subsequent success in an academic program have been carried out at schools where ESL students eventually enter classes in which they are a minority, competing with native speakers of English, at American Samoa Community College nearly all the students speak English as their second language, yet they attend classes in which English, for the most part, is the language of instruction. In such a setting, it is not surprising that the ability of an English language test to predict later success in a variety of academic subjects would be greater than other studies in different situations have indicated.*

Most colleges which admit large numbers of ESL students use tests of English language proficiency for selection/placement purposes. Clark (1977) has emphasized the urgent need for validation studies to increase the practical usefulness of tests such as TOEFL and CELT. For example, it would be helpful to be able to predict the probability of student success in different academic programs or to estimate the amount of remediation needed by students prior to entrance into regular college programs. The study reported here is a portion of a student follow-up study conducted at American Samoa Community College in late 1977. It addresses the predictive validity of the CELT Structure and Vocabulary tests. Both tests were found to correlate significantly with "performing well in class" as measured by the percentage of A's and B's (% A & B) received by students. The tests did not predict the total number of credits earned or completion of an Associate degree.

Research aimed at establishing the predictive validity of ESL tests with respect to future academic performance has tended

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to be inconclusive Pack (1972) reported that the TOEFL and Michigan both correlated significantly with grades earned in beginning English classes. However, she found no significant relationship between these tests and other criterion variables, including further English classes and completion of a degree. Burgess and Greis (1970) compared the Michigan and TOEFL with student grade point average (GPA). Despite a small sample size (17), they obtained significant correlations between GPA and both the TOEFL and the Michigan.

DESCRIPTION OF THE STUDY

A follow-up study was conducted of 237 students who first entered American Samoa Community College (ASCC) in 1974. The study was based on data available in student personnel records and subsequent interviews with the individuals. The validation study reported here is a subpart of this larger study.

ASCC is an open-door institution. Students are admitted regardless of the results of placement testing. The student body is composed of 20% who are bilingual or native speakers of English. The remaining 80% are ESL students, primarily speakers of Samoan. Since such a large proportion of the student body speaks English as a second language, we were interested in the extent to which future student performance could be predicted from a student's initial English proficiency. Three measures of student success (criterion variables) were identified: (1) Completing many credits; (2) Performing well in class (% A & B); (3) Earning a degree. These criterion variables were each correlated with three predictor variables: (1) CELT Structure; (2) CELT Vocabulary; (3) CELT Structure and Vocabulary combined.

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Complete data for the above variables was available for 150 students. These 150 students represent nearly the full range of English language proficiency among applicants to the institution. Since no one is denied admission, the only students excluded from the study were those who deselected themselves by dropping out without completing even one course. The fact that the range of scores is not appreciably restricted in this study is an important point. At institutions where a minimum score is required for admission, the lowest scoring students are not afforded the opportunity to attempt college work and probably to fail. This factor artificially reduces any correlation between scores and subsequent performance criteria. In such cases, non-significant correlations might actually be significant if appropriate corrections for restriction of the range were applied.

RESULTS

The correlations between the three CELT scores and the three criterion variables are presented in Table I. It is apparent that neither of the CELT tests alone or in combination is able to significantly predict either the number of credits earned or the achievement of an ASCC degree. However, the CELT tests are significant predictors of class performance (as measured by the percent of A's and B's earned).

DISCUSSION

Several important considerations must be kept in mind when viewing these results. First, classroom performance as measured by % A & B is a criterion which is not perfectly reliable or valid. The *validity* of this measure is threatened by the fact that different courses are graded on different standards. A student might earn an A from one teacher and a C from another for equivalent effort and learning. In addition, some teachers rarely award A's or B's while others award all A's and B's. (The average ASCC instructor, in Fall semester, 1976, awarded 47% A's and B's.) The *reliability* of this measure (% A & B) is threatened by inconsistency of student performance. Students rarely per-

Correlations Between CELT and Criterion Measures

N = 150

	Earned Degree	Credits Completed	Percent A's & B's	CELT S + V	CELT Vocabulary
CELT Structure	.02	−.03	.35*	.92*	.68*
CELT Vocabulary	.10	.02	.37*	.93*	
CELT S + V Structure + Vocabulary	.05	−.02	.38*		

* $p < .01$

TABLE 1

form equally well in all classes; the able student may do poorly in a given class due to factors separate from English language or general academic ability.

A second consideration that undoubtedly served to depress the obtained correlation is the absence of recorded F or No Credit grades at ASCC. Students who do not pass a course or who withdraw have no record of their educational attempts on their transcripts. The non-recording of non-passing student performance restricts the range of the criterion measure and, again, causes the obtained correlations to be conservative.

While the range restriction problem due to non-recorded failures could not feasibly be solved, the lack of reliability in the criterion is correctable. The reliability of the measure % A & B may be estimated using the intra-class correlation coefficient. This coefficient also provides an estimate of the maximum validity of the measure. The upper limit of the validity of grades, for these students, is thus estimated as .73. Using this information, the corrected for attenuation correlations between the criterion (% A & B) and the CELT Structure, Vocabulary, and Structure plus Vocabulary tests are .47, .43, and .44 respectively. We feel that a clear relationship has been established between a student's English language proficiency, as measured by the CELT, and the quality of his subsequent academic performance.

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SENTENCE COMBINING: A Theory and Two Reviews

by Ron Shook

There *is* something new under the sun and it is finding its way into ESL classes. The "new" thing is *sentence combining.* Although the concept has been around for some and has been utilized successfully in grade schools and junior highs in the United States, it is only recently that teachers of English to speakers of other languages have become aware of it or that materials have become available to them. I have two such ESL sentence combining texts before me now, the first that I am aware of outside of Allen's *Working Sentences.* The two texts are Rainsbury, *Written English* and Gallingane and Byrd, *Write Away*.

These two books represent an interesting blending of theory with practice and are the result of significant turn of thought in language pedagogy. It is this: teaching grammatical theory does not insure that students will be able to produce grammatical sentences, but one can, utilizing grammatical theory, construct exercises that force students to produce grammatical sentences. The sentence combining parts of these texts don't "teach" any grammar. What they do is to put the student in a situation where he or she utilizes the grammar that is already in the mind.

This article is intended to do two things: 1) acquaint the reader with the theory of sentence combining and 2) review the two books mentioned above. If the reader is already familiar with sentence combining or bored with theory she/he is invited to skip the first part and proceed to the reviews.

SENTENCE COMBINING WHAT IT IS AND WHAT IT IS NOT.

When Chomsky burst on the scene with *Syntactic Structures* in 1957, he brought with him the notion of the "kernel sentence," a basic, no frills SVO sentence which was doctored up by transformations into more intricate patterns. As syntactic theory become more sophisticated, the notion of the "kernel sentence" was dropped by theorists but picked up on the first bounce by pedigogues. "If," they asked themselves, "we make big sentences out of a number of smaller ones, why can't we teach children this new grammar and see if it helps them?" And so they did. Children were subjected to various versions of transformational generative grammar, to the delight of linguists and the despair of teachers and students. However, it did seem to work. In a landmark study Donald Bateman and Frank Zidonis taught transformational grammar to a group of seventh graders. Sure enough, the ability of the seventh graders to make longer sentences (called "syntactic fluency") increased. Thus it seemed that transformational generative grammar was not only a realistic description of the English language but accurately catalogued what went on in a person's mind.

But others weren't so sure. Mark Lester has suggested, for instance, that teaching transformational grammar and expecting students to write better was much like teaching logic and expecting people to be logical. It didn't necessarily follow. Yet, the evidence seemed strong. Why, if transformational generative grammar didn't work, did the writing students tested by Bateman and Zidonis improve?

In an attempt to improve upon the study of Bateman and Zidonis (which it needed) John Mellon undertook a study which he called *Transformational Sentence Combining.* In this study he did away with the cumbersome theoretical apparatus of Bateman and Zidonis and taught a streamlined grammatical theory. And, as had Bateman and Zidonis, he supplemented his teaching with exercises in combining sentences. The Mellon study confirmed the findings of Bateman and Zidonis: children who are

exposed to transformational generative grammar are able to write longer, more complex sentences.

However, the basic question, as put by Lester and others, had not been answered by Mellon. The problem was that there were really two variables in the study. One was the teaching of a theoretical grammar, and the other was practice in the application of that grammar. Which of the two was making the difference? In order to answer this question Frank O'Hare conducted a study he called *Sentence Combining* (the absence of the word "transformational" is significant). In this study O'Hare simply gave his students exercises in various methods of combining sentences. His students, like the students in the other two studies, were able to write longer, more syntactically mature sentences. But this time it was clear. It was the exercises.

So it appeared that it was not the *teaching* of grammar that helped students write but the doing of exercises that forced students to apply rules of that grammar. Students forced by the circumstances of an exercise to produce grammatical embeddings are able to do so. Subsequent work in California has yielded impressive results in using sentence combining as a tool in developing communicative competence. The Department of Education of the state of Hawaii has created a number of sentence combining texts. And there is at least one text on the market (Strong *Sentence Combining*) that is nothing but a series of sentence combining exercises.

Sentence Combining in ESL

It seems that there is great promise for sentence combining as a device for teaching young people to write. A person may develop a greater productive capability by simply tapping the grammar that he has in his head. To date, however, sentence combining has mainly been used with people that are a) young, and b) native speakers of English. The question for ESL teachers is whether sentence combining has any worth at all, has limited worth, or great worth for ESL. Can it be used in the same way it is with native speakers? The problem boils down to this: does sentence combining operate off an already acquired competence or does it help to develop competence? If, for instance, a person must already have an internalized grammar to work from, then sentence combining will be of limited value to the second language speaker. It could be used only as an accessory to consciously acquired grammatical structures. If, on the other hand, sentence combining can actually build that underlying system of rules we call grammar, then it might be one of the most significant techniques to emerge in the past quarter century.

On the basis of the evidence to date, my feeling is that sentence combining will serve best as an adjunct to formal instruction in grammatical principles. I feel it is an advance that will help students enormously. I feel that if it is used correctly, it is a creative, eye-opening exercise for students of English as a second language. It can be used for a number of different things—to teach the rhetoric of the sentence, for instance. And sentence combining can be used effectively to show different ways of relating thought to thought in language. I predict a great future for sentence combining in ESL classes.

REVIEWS

Rainsbury, Robert. *Written English: An Introduction for Beginning Students of English as a Second Language.* Prentice-Hall, 1978. Paperback, workbook format, detachable pages, and holes for three-ring binder.

Rainsbury's *Written English* is a fairly low level program in teaching writing. A number of grammatical structures are taught, starting with very, very basic things such as beginning a sentence with a capital and ending with a period. By the time the student is finished with the book he has not progressed into complicated structures (the last four lessons deal with phrases and clauses). I'm not going to discuss the grammatical structures and the way they are presented. In this review I will simply discuss the sentence combining exercises that Rainsbury uses. The format of the book is as follows: four or five or six lessons are set up presenting certain grammatical structures and then sentence combining exercises are given to elicit these particular structures from the student. So we start out with possessive pronouns, noun plurals, the ING forms of the verbs, prepositional phrases, and so on.

Chapter Seven is the first contact the student has with sentence combining.

Lessons Seven and Eight are the exercises in sentence combining, which never go beyond the range of the simple sentence in English. All that is done is to take a very basic subject-verb-object simple sentence and make it into a longer, but still basic subject-verb-object sentence. An example is the following:

The boy is tall.
The boy is handsome.
The boy is tall and handsome.
The boy is young.
The boy is a student.
The boy is a young student.
Tom is a student.
John is a student.
Tom and John are students.

And that's all there is to it. The exercises are designed to give students practice in understanding the relationship of adjectives to the rest of the sentence.

The next set of sentence combining exercises is found in Chapter Fourteen. Sentences are combined using *because, so,* and noun phrases. In other words, the sentence combining exercises now involve what in traditional grammar would be complex sentences. An example is as follows:

I'm washing the dishes.
They're dirty.
I'm washing the dishes because they're dirty.

At this point the student should be learning that a person can combine two propositions to form a single idea with one proposition subordinate to the other. Here one of the weaknesses of the book becomes evident. The second sentence of this exercise is "They're dirty." The pronoun *they* and the contraction are supplied by the text, not produced by the student. This is a mistake. I see no reason the student shouldn't be producing as much as he can in constructing sentences. For example, I would like to see this difference made in the exercise:

I'm washing the dishes.
The dishes are dirty.
I'm washing the dishes because they're dirty.

Note that the student in this exercise must not only combine two complete thoughts but must change the subject of the second sentence from the noun phrase *the dishes* to the pronoun *they* plus also make the contraction from *they are* to *they're*. The student is asked not merely to do some simple substitution exercises, but to understand the relationship within the sentence between noun phrases and pronouns. He must produce some grammatical English on his own.

In the same chapter the student is asked to make noun phrases out of sentences. That is, he will take a sentence like:

The dishes are dirty.

and change it into

The dirty dishes.

I have two objections to this: 1) students should not produce units smaller than a sentence: 2) whenever possible linguistic relationships should be illustrated. In this case, the relationship between the noun phrase and the relative clause. The two principles on which I base my objections are interrelated. If noun phrases are taught in isolation and only noun phrases are taught, the lessons fail in two ways. First, the relationship of the noun phrase to the whole sentence is not shown. The NP is simply an isolated bit. Secondly, the relationship of noun phrases to other structures which serve the same purpose is not shown. Let me illustrate. Suppose we have a sentence such as:

The dishes are in the sink.

which we collapse to the noun phrase

the dishes in the sink.

in the context of an exercise we would then make a sentence such as:

I'm washing the dishes in the sink.

This does provide experience in using NPs. However, much more could be done. Suppose that the exercise were structured a little bit differently. Imagine, if you will, the following sentences:

I'm washing the dishes.
The dishes are in the sink.

Now, there are two ways that one can create one sentence out of those two. The first way would be to make, "The dishes are in the sink" into a relative clause and combine them thusly:

I'm washing the dishes which are in the sink.

A second way would be to make the sentence "The dishes are in the sink" into a

noun phrase "the dishes in the sink," and to combine them into the sentence:

I'm washing the dishes in the sink.

It should be apparant that there is a very close semantic relationship between the sentences, "I'm washing the dishes which are in the sink." and "I'm washing the dishes in the sink." They are, in fact, the same sentence, and the noun phrase "The dishes in the sink," is no more than a reduced relative clause. The knowledge, conscious or unconscious, of this relationship should be a part of every student's linguistic repertory. The exercises in *Written English*, however, give the student no insights into such linguistic relationships and are therefore incomplete, and I think, inadequate.

The final section of sentence combining exercises is in Lesson Seventeen. Combining sentences with *and, so, both,* and *neither-nor*. So exercises appear such as:

John is a student.
Tom is a student.
John is a student and so is Tom.

These exercises are fairly straightforward, giving the student a chance to try out a variety of sentence types, and the only objection that I have to the chapter is that it's too short. It's only about a page and a half long.

Things I Like

1. The book has a good format. It's the same size as a piece of regular writing paper, 8-1/2 by 11. There's room to work in it, room to write in it. It has tear-out pages with holes for ringbinders so that the student can build a workbook, the teacher can build a file on the student, or the teacher can have access to what the student is doing without having to pass the whole book back and forth.

2. It is good practice in the actual writing of English. The student does produce structures. It's all writing; it isn't a mixture of oral/written English, but presupposes that there is a difference between the two. Further, it presupposes the actual mechanical aspects of writing such things as handwriting and punctuation are important enough to be taught and not simply picked up.

3. The lesson sequence, although not very extensive, is appropriate to the materials being taught. That is, the sentence combining exercises start out with simple sentences and move on to more complex structures.

Things I Don't Like

1. The exercises don't allow for different ways of saying the same thing. The text only allows two sentences to be combined in one way. (This *could* be viewed as a strength because it leaves the beginning student with less options to worry his mind with. But at the same time a student cannot help but be aware that there are a number of ways of saying the same thing in English.) The richness of the language is totally ignored in this book.

2. There is not enough sentence combining in the text and not enough kinds of sentence combining. The text makes a few exercises in creating sentences with *and so*. But there is not nearly enough work for the student to become proficient.

3. The text does not show the relationship of thought and structure. I touched on this earlier when I talked about the relationship of noun phrase to reduced relative clause. The relationship in English between a one-word adjective, a noun-phrase, an absolute construction, a relative clause, is intricate to be sure, but vital to native speaker proficiency. Sentence combining may be the best way to illustrate this. The Rainsbury text could have exploited this richness, but didn't.

Gallingane, Glory, and Donald Byrd. *Write Away: A Course for Writing English as a Second Language, Book 1*. Collier-McMillan English Program, 1978, paperback.

This book starts out with a number of strikes against it as far as I am concerned. First, there is the cutesy title *Write Away*. Second, there's the fact that most of the credits--authors and the title of the book are in lower case. Third, there is the size of

(continued on page 12)

HOW TO CONSTRUCT

by Alice C. Pack

A crossword puzzle can be quickly and easily constructed by even the most inexperienced teacher, and be as simple or as elaborate as the teacher desires or the lesson requires.

These puzzles are good, not only for vocabulary learning and reenforcement, but are also excellent teaching tools (particularly when sentences with clozure are used as the cues) for word derivatives—a real problem to the ESL student whose native language is non-European.

MATERIALS

All one needs to construct a crossword puzzle are a sheet of large square graph paper (about four squares to the inch is a good size), a ruler, and a pencil—of course, the words to be included in the puzzle and their definitions and/or sentences with clozure blanks must be on hand. (*If graph paper of this size is unavailable, draw your own graph paper on a ditto master with squares this size or larger.*)

PROCEDURE

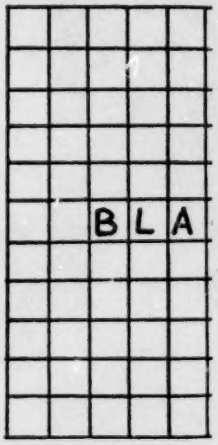
Starting with the longest word in the group, print it, one letter to a square, horizontally or vertically, near the middle of the sheet (*see diagram No. 1*). Add an additional word by intersecting it with the first word using a common letter (*see diagram No. 2*). Continue by adding words both horizontally and vertically, until all the words on your list have been included (*see diagram No. 3*). This list may be only your basic vocabulary list or it may include some review words (freedom to add extra words makes the puzzle a little easier to construct).

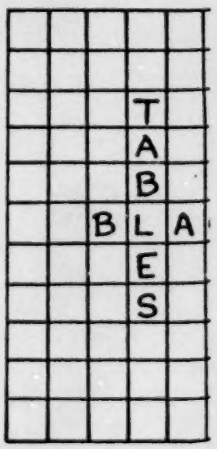
After all the words have been placed in squares (always intersecting with at least one other word) a plain sheet of good bond paper (or any other kind which is semi-transparent) is placed on top. Fasten the two sheets together with paper clips or tape at the corners. Then, using the ruler, draw horizontal lines above and below each word and/or letter.

You now have the basic form of the puzzle (*see diagram No. 4*). Put a number at the beginning of each word, both horizontally and vertically, starting with the first square at the top (*see diagram No. 5*). Number the cues to correspond with the numbers of the words on the sheet. The puzzle may be duplicated by a copy machine or redrawn on a spirit master and run off.

An easy puz
found in the scl

paper
pencils
chairs
tables
chalk





A CROSSWORD PUZZLE

e using vocabulary items
oolroom.

books
desks
blackboard
eraser
maps

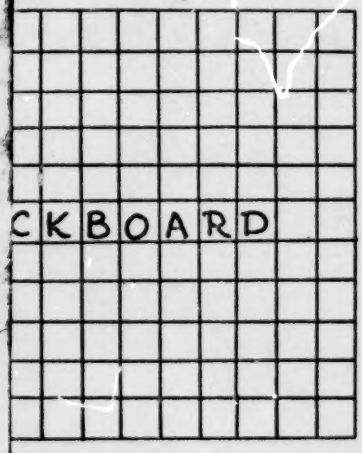
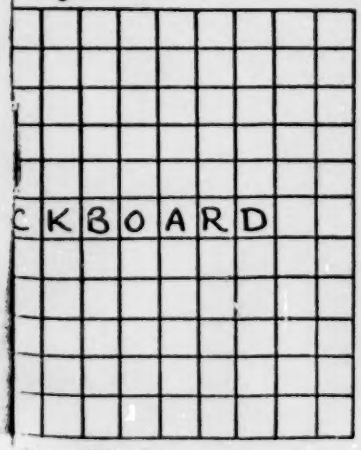


Diagram No. 1



agram No. 2

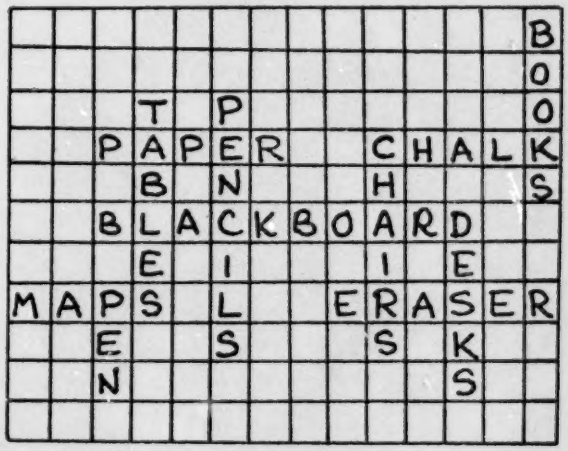


Diagram No. 3

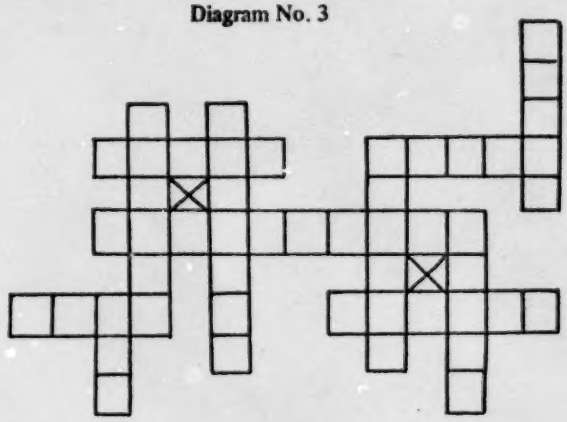


Diagram No. 4

Diagram No. 5 and the clues (sentences with clozure) are found on the following page. A more advanced puzzle with its cues is also included.

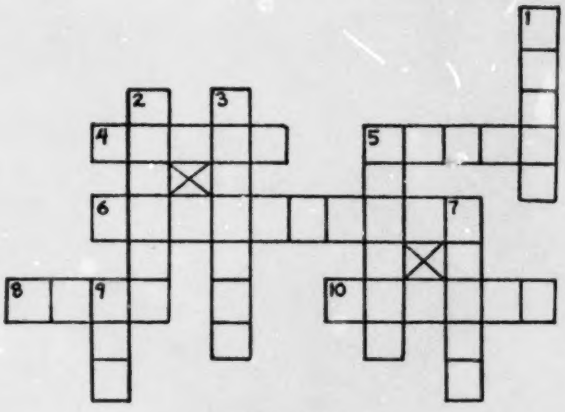


Diagram No. 5

ACROSS

1. The students read from their open ———.
4. When a student finishes he hands in his ———.
5. & 6. The teacher uses ——— to write on the ———.
8. Countries with their capitol cities are shown on ———.
10. An ——— is used to wipe the words off the blackboard.

DOWN

2. The ——— are arranged in rows.
3. The students write with ———.
5. The students sit on ———.
9. The teacher usually writes with a ———.

Following is a more advanced puzzle that uses derivatives of the given vocabulary words. At the discretion of the teacher, a list of the different word forms may or may not be given to the students.

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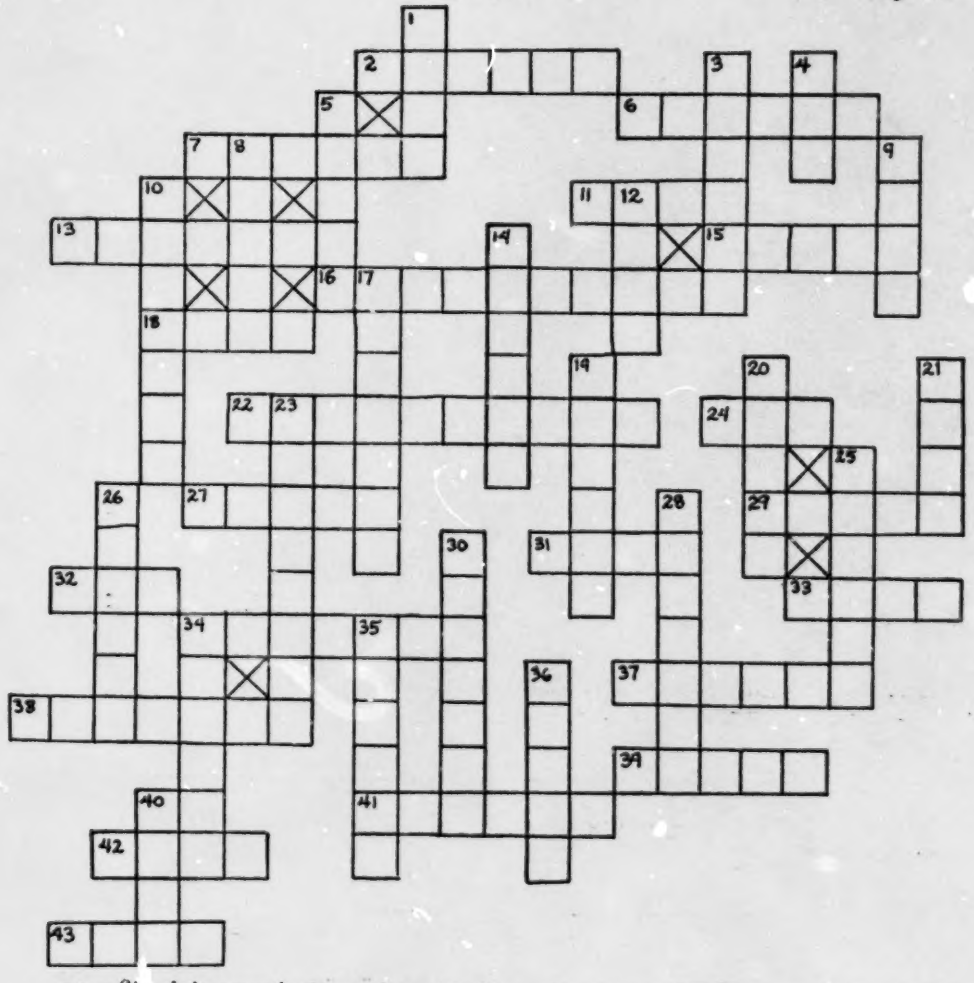
Editor . . . . . Alice C. Pack

Staff . . . . . Lynn Henrichsen
Greg Larkin
James Ford

Articles relevant to teaching English as a second language in Hawaii, the South Pacific and Asia, may be submitted to the editor through Box 157, Brigham Young University–Hawaii Campus, Laie, Oahu, Hawaii, 96762. Manuscripts should be double-spaced and typed, not exceeding six pages.

VOCABULARY

study (studiously, student)
read (reads, reader)
writer (written, writes)
wise (wisdom, wisely)
teacher (teach, taught)
learn (learns, learning)
desk (desks)
table (tables)
test (testing)
idle (idler, idlers)
papers
map (maps)
chalk
blackboard
pencils
me
please (pleased)



(Words in parenthesis may be omitted from the sentence if a harder puzzle is desired.)

ACROSS

2. A substitute (teacher) — — the lesson (yesterday).
6. The — — (of this essay) needs to revise it.
7. People who do nothing are — —.
11. She(s always busy, so) never has an — — — moment.
13. The teacher — — — was — — with the students' work.
15. That student wants to — — — everything (about the subject).
16. He — — avoided doing anything (that interfered with his pleasure).
18. Put the papers in (the drawer of) your — — —.
22. The teacher usually writes on the — — (with chalk).
24. & 27. When one writes with — — (and ink), it's hard to — — — (the writing).
29. The teacher writes with — — — (on the blackboard).
31. (At the end of the semester) we always have a — — —.
32. There's a — — (of the world) on the wall of the classroom.

(continued on page 16)

SENTENCE COMBINING

(continued from page 7)

the book: it's 5-1/2 inches tall by 8-1/4 inches wide and looks like a checkbook with glandular problems. Fourth, there is the language that is inside (The first exercise talks about two rock singers, L. T. John and Dick Hagger). The overall impression one gets is that the authors and the publishers are trying to be very witty. It doesn't quite come off, and grates on the nerves, but then that may be my own particular prejudices and I can always tell myself that the autnors of the book are after all not responsible for what the publisher wishes to do about format. I'm almost certain, though, that foreign students are not going to understand the cleverness of the title of the book.

However, in reading the book I find it has strengths which allow it to overcome the initial bad impression I got of it. The book consists of two types of activities rewriting and sentence combining. The rewriting activities are similar to those that would be found in the Dykstra series. I will be writing only about the second part, the sentence combining, because that is after all what this article is all about.

The introduction to the book has an explanation to the student that is quite nice because it takes the student through a mock lesson. The sentence combining portion looks like the following:

1a. Mr. Denis is a clerk.
b. He works in a post office.

2a. He always eats dinner.
b. He eats it when he gets home.

3a. One day he came home.
b. He was tired.
c. He was hungry.
d. His dinner was not ready.

4a. Mrs. Denis was reading a book.
b. The book was about women.
c. It was about their liberation.

and so on. The student is asked to combine sentences in any way that makes sense and is told explicitly that there is no one right way of doing it. The authors say, "In a sentence combining activity like the one above, you can often combine the sentences in more than one way." And then some examples are given.

Write Away recognizes that the structure and movement of thought often condition the syntax of a sentence. For example, sentence number 3 has a movement that might be realized as something like the following:

One day he came home tired and hungry, but his dinner was not ready.

It is evident that the last proposition, "his dinner was not ready" is different from the others and the syntactic *but* is the expression of a semantic fact. *Write Away* applies this principle.

Another interesting and worthwhile part of this particular exercise is that it forces the students to produce different word forms in line with different meanings. The last combination in the sequence is as follows:

8a. She smiled.
b. Her smile was sweet.
c. She said, "I'm ready dear. Where are we going to eat?"

To combine "she smiled" and "her smile was sweet" one needs to change the adjectival form to its adverbial form, giving us:

She smiled sweetly.

which is one thing that foreign students really need to learn.

The students start out with simple phrase conjunction sentences such as:

Annie is lucky.
Rose is lucky.

which will give a compound subject with a plural verb *are*. By the end of the fifty lessons, students are combining up to four small sentences into one large one. Moreover, the possible relationships between propositions continues to be more or less free for the student. Occasionally some direction will be given, but for the most part the *meaning* of the final sentence suggests how the sentences should be combined. This gives the teacher a basis for discussing the relationships of ideas to each other within the sentence. It also helps the student relate such things as idea content, functions, and word classes.

(continued on page 15)

Report on Second Annual YEAR OF COMPOSITION WORKSHOP

by Greg Larkin

As one department chairman summed it up, the quality of the presentations at the second annual composition workshop was the "highest of any workshop on writing I've ever attended."

Without exception, workshop sessions were very well prepared, were longer than last year, and involved considerably more audience participation.

Those who attended went away with very valuable information and practical strategies for teaching and reinforcing composition, which they are adding to their existing programs.

The tone was set on Friday morning, as Larry Smith of the East-West Culture Learning Institute set composition instruction into the framework of English as an International Auxiliary Language. Particularly for ESL teachers, this presentation afforded instructors in writing an overall framework and rationale that goes beyond the day-to-day classroom considerations. Students need to learn to write English for more reasons than to pass English writing classes.

Friday morning continued as Hector Nevarez of the Defense Language Institute and Curtis Hayes of the University of Texas at San Antonio presented examples of the detrimental effects of poor handwriting on teachers' perceptions of students' compositions. They then went on to outline a laboratory-type program to improve handwriting, showing many specific case histories of dramatic improvement through the program. As a result of this presentation, BYU-Hawaii is adding a handwriting skills unit to its English Skills Lab

Concurrently on Friday morning Richard Nakamura of the Hawaii Department of Education presented a two-hour session on the creation of specific objectives for use in composition classes which could be adopted or adapted by an English teacher to help insure that minimal writing standards are attained.

On Friday afternoon Alice Pack of BYU-Hawaii led a detailed tour of the English Skills Lab at the university. Many specific programs in reading, listening, speaking, and writing were shown and/or demonstrated. Everyone who attended was able to discover some new programs he had not seen before.

Lynn Henrichsen of BYU-Hawaii presented a session on the effect of unorthodox spoken forms of English on the written English of ESL students. Materials to identify these problems were distributed, as well as programs to help solve them. Emphasized was the fact that the true problem must be identified before it can be solved and what often looks like a grammar problem is sometimes only the student trying to write what he thinks he hears.

Four workshops were held on Saturday. Frank Otto of BYU-Provo presented methods to evaluate compositions for skills other than grammar and mechanics. His materials are currently being adapted into the existing freshman English program at BYU-Hawaii. Gerald Dykstra of the University of Hawaii presented a video tape program illustrating the uses of humor and questioning a major element in the BYU-Hawaii English Skills Lab, as they are so easily used by students with a wide range of abilities. Greg Larkin of BYU-Hawaii presented a video tape program illustrating the uses of humor and questioning in the classroom, showing administrators of composition programs how they can use video taping as a means of increasing teaching effectiveness. Saturday afternoon W. Ross Winterowd of the University of Southern California discussed the uses of sentence combining and the role of hemisphericity in the composition process. This discussion incorporated the

most up-to-date, ongoing research in composition today.

Workshop participants also enjoyed a large number of extra features including two luncheons, with President Dan Anderson and Dean Jay Fox of BYU-Hawaii as speakers on Friday and W. Ross Winterowd speaking on Saturday. In addition, an evening at the Polynesian Cultural Center, including dinner and the spectacular, multi-cultural show, was included as part of the $12.50 per day workshop.

The second annual year of composition workshop, to reword Churchill, was a case of "never was so much offered to so few." In a sentence, the workshop sessions themselves were uniformly excellent, but not as many attended as had been hoped.

Employment Opportunities

TEACHING OPENING IN JAPAN

Position: Teacher of Oral English in the High School Division of Kobe College. A three-year contract commencing September 1, 1978.

Qualifications: B.A. minimum; major in English not required; teaching experience desirable; must be a Christian and eligible for short-term appointment by the United Church Board for Ministries (United Church of Christ).

Kobe College: Founded in 1875, Kobe College is the oldest Christian institution of higher education for women in Japan. It is located on a beautiful 30-acre campus in suburban Nishinomiya, convenient to nearby Kobe, Osaka, and Kyoto. The College comprises a six-year combined Junior and Senior High School Division, a four-year College Division, and a two-year division of Graduate Studies. The high school enrolls approximately 905 students, the college 2,018 students, and the graduate division 7 students.

High School English Department: With a faculty of 9 - out of a total of approximately 40 teachers - Kobe College High School maintains one of the most outstanding English language programs in Japan, attested to by the fact that as many as 14 of its seniors have been selected on the basis of competitive examination to spend a year abroad studying in an American high school under such programs as American Field Service and Youth for Understanding. Kobe College Corporation supports two American teachers in the English department. In addition to regular teaching, they help with plays, coach students for speech and debate contests, lead chapel, and travel with students and faculty on excursions.

Living: An attractive on-campus furnished apartment is provided, rent free.

Salary: Current annual salary is $7,776. In addition, round-trip travel, freight, reimbursement of Japanese income tax, employer and employee share of United States Social Security taxes and medical expenses are paid.

Summer language study option: The appointee is encouraged to take advantage of the option for six to eight weeks of Japanese language study in Japan in the summer of 1978. Tuition, travel, housing, and a per diem will be paid.

Address application or request for further information to
Kobe College Corporation
41 Okadayama, Nishinomiya,
Japan 662

For more than 25 years, Kobe College Corporation has been recruiting young American Women to teach oral English in the High School Division of Kobe College in Nishinomiya, Japan. We currently are supporting, together with the College, two American teachers of English in the High School Division and one in the College Division.

TEFL PROGRAM

Northrop Aircraft Division,
Saudi Arabia

Dhahran and Taif, Saudi Arabia. Intensive course. Students are technicians in Royal Saudi Air Force, ages 18 to 20. Student to teacher ratio of no more than 10:1, most students enter at intermediate level. Instruction is primarily audio-lingual although not too heavy on drill, the standard text is DLI American Language Course liberally supplemented full range of audio-visual aids, lab is reel-to-reel Sony equipment with four program sources, classes held in specially-constructed, airconditioned, sound-proofed building.

MINIMUM QUALIFICATIONS:

BA in English, linguistics or a modern foreign language, or MA in TEFL/TESL, English, linguistics or a modern language. If qualifications meet the above, one year of solid classroom experience in TEFL/TESL is required. If qualifications are in other disciplines, four years of solid classroom experience in TEFL/FESL are required. Of these four years, two must have been overseas. Applicants who expect to meet minimums in the future may apply.

RESUMES & APPLICATIONS TO:

From U S.

Manager, English Language Training
Northrop (137)
APO New York, NY 09616

From Overseas:

Manager, English Language Training
(137)
Northrop Corporation
P.O. Box 21
Dhahran, Saudi Arabia

Resumes should include full details of TEFL experience including materials used, educational level and age of students, use of audio-visual equipment, daily contact hours and amount of supplementary material used and/or developed.

Once you have applied, please write at least every 12 months to keep your application current.

Keep in mind that our teaching staff is fairly stable and vacancies are few, perhaps five or six annually. Consequently, most successful candidates have been corresponding with us over a one or two, and in some cases three, year period.

As all employees are on indefinite aggreements with a 90-day resignation clause, once a vacancy occurs we attempt to hire a replacement and have him in Saudi Arabia within three months. Because of this short time we often have to contact applicants by phone or cable, and it is advisable to keep us up-to-date on your address and phone.

SENTENCE COMBINING

(continued from page 12)

Things I Like

1. The structure of the exercises. They are creative and give insight into linguistic processes and relationships.
2. The progression of the exercises. What I like is that there isn't really much progression. Sentential noun phrases, for instance, aren't touched. This gives the students lots of practice in a few forms.
3. An index in the end linking each exercise to specific grammatical forms.

Things I Don't Like

1. The format and size of the book, and its humor. The humor o the book is built around a number of jokes that are typically western, e.g. Th old chestnut about the woman who is stopped for going the wrong way on a one-way street and says to the officer, "But officer, I was only going one way." This might be a little too much for our readers.
2. The answer key in the back of the book. All of the answers to the sentence combining exercises are there. I do not mind at all that they are there in case any teacher should not be able to think of the answers on his own hook. (Variant structures are given if there are more ways of saying a sentence). But I would prefer them to be detached so that if I wish to use the text as a means of forcing my students to do it all on their own, I can.

Whatever its faults *Write Away* is a strong piece of work. It combines two of the best techniques currently in use guided writing and sentence combining. Furthermore, it gives enough exercises in each one that the student will really get some practice in creating and producing, sentences. It is a book which covers a limited field but covers that field quite well. I recommend it.

HOW TO CONSTRUCT CROSSWORD PUZZLES

(continued from page 11)

33. The assignment was to ---(a chapter) in the text every night.
34. We also have -- assignments (to hand in).
37. One -- (English) by using the language.
38. The teacher is -- the students (now).
39. If a student will --- hard, he will learn.
40. It seems like the teacher always calls on ---.
41. He can --- do the work (if he tries).
42. The work is --- if one tries (to do it).
43. The -- student does his work (everyday).

DOWN

1. The teacher often uses the -- (in the atlas).
3. (During the semester,) he -- studied every day.
4. She needs a --- (to sign her name on this paper).
5. The student -- a book every weekend.
8. Students have their own --- (in the classroom).
9. You can use one of the ------ in the desk (to write your essay).
10. All of the students (who like to read) are good ---.
12. Put the essays in (the top drawer of) the ---.
14. Students should use -- when studying and not stay up all night.
17. The --- gave a new assignment (every day last semester).
19. Be sure to buy (a pencil with) an -- (on it).
20. Some instructors - -- better than others.
21. Do you have the -- -(with our assignment in it)?
23. I'm not sure how much I'm ---(in this class).
25. Put all of the -- on top of the desk (when you are through with the exam).
26. Are there enough --- (for all the students)?
28. Yes, every --- has a desk, too.
30. Do you like hard or soft (lead) ----?
34. That student -- well (when he tries).
35. We use --- (instead of desks).
36. Every student has his own --- (to use as a desk).
40. We often use the --- (in the atlas).

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